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## WHEN AND HOW SHALL THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BE STUDIED IN THE HIGH SCHOOL?

[Paper read by ELBRIDGE SMITH, Esq., at the meeting of the High School Teachers in October.]

WHEN and how shall the English language be studied in the High School, are the questions which you have asked me to answer in twenty minutes. The task is difficult, and the time short.

The least time that can with any propriety be assigned to this exercise, as it seems to me, is two hours a week during the entire course of study in the High School. In mentioning this time, however, I wish to be understood as specifying the extreme *minimum* rather than the true proportion of the course which the importance of the subject demands. This will give to the study of the English language only seven or eight per cent of the time spent at the High School, and one-quarter or one-third of a year, according as the course covers a period of three or four years. With this brief disposition of the "*when*," and only remarking in addition that this time should be distributed through the entire course, rather than occupy a distinct portion of time at the beginning, middle or end of the curriculum, I proceed to the second question.

How shall the English language be studied in the High School? I answer not in its elements and forms but in its literature; not in

technical grammar, rhetoric and elocution, merely, but in the writings of its standard authors; not in the admirable works of Campbell, Blair, Whately, Murray, Greene, Latham, Fowler, Russell, Rush, and Vandenhoff, but in the standard works which the world refuses to let die. But this general statement is not sufficient; the vital part of the question still remains unanswered. Granting that the language is to be studied in the productions of its great masters, the inquiry still remains, How shall these productions be studied?

How shall Chaucer or Spenser or Shakespeare or Bacon or Milton or Dryden or Pope or Thomson or Gray or Goldsmith be studied so that the student shall derive from these great masters of thought and expression the greatest improvement?

In taking up one of these classic authors let us consider for a moment how differently they may be studied.

First, we may give almost exclusive attention to the grammatical construction in what is technically called *parsing;* and thus make the study of the author merely an exercise in etymology and syntax.

Secondly, we may direct attention to the *logical analysis* so exclusively, that the author shall serve merely to furnish abundant examples of all sorts of propositions in their various relations of co-ordination and subordination, with all the distinctions of subject and predicate, simple, complex, and compound.

In the third place, we may, if the composition be poetry, devote the time to *prosody,* and make the text merely the means of teaching the names of all the feet and combinations of feet that poetic frenzy has devised.

In the fourth place, we may give ourselves to *etymology,* by tracing every word to its origin, and spreading before the pupil all the ingenuities and absurdities of Horne Tooke, the learning of Max Muller, Bopp, Whitney and Donaldson.

Again, we may devote the time and turn the attention of the pupil to the history of the language, and point out with great care its composite structure, and show how Celt, Briton, Roman, Saxon, and Norman have contributed beauty and strength to the grand mosaic which we call English.

Or we may work at *antiquities, geography and history, genealogy and scientific allusions,* until, after the fashion of Jacotot, we make

our author a kind of encyclopedia, an introduction to all knowledge.

Nor is this all; we may become very critical in what may be termed *rhetorical parsing*. We may point out all comparisons, metaphors, personifications, etc.

And lastly, we may toil at *elocution*, we may drill upon the elementary sounds of the language, and carry our pupils through vocals, sub-vocals and aspirates, chest-tones and head-tones, effusive and explosive orotund, until our school-room shall become a nuisance to the neighborhood.

Now, it is easy to see that any one of these methods above mentioned may be carried to the extent of entirely losing sight of the author, and only making him the packhorse or instrument of bringing so many constructions or verses or words or allusions or fine extracts before the class. Scholars may become wonderful experts in grammatical humdrum or logical analysis, or very critical in detecting the Celtic, Roman, Saxon, or Norman origin of words, or they may explain with varied learning every allusion, whether archæological, mythological, geographical, or historical, or they may spout orotund, guttural, or shouting tones, and run through the whole elocutionary gamut, — they may do all this, not only with little knowledge of their author, but with a feeling of dislike at the bare mention of his name. A classic author may be studied in any or all these methods, and little more impression be left upon the mind than would be derived from a good dictionary, or from the examples in Goold Brown's "Grammar of English Grammars."

But while I say that in no *one* of these courses of instructions do we find the true road to the mastery of an author's language, let me not be understood to say that they have nothing to do with it. They are all more or less intimately related to it. They are, indeed, so closely connected with it that we must meddle constantly with all these subjects, but *so meddle* with them that we shall not for a moment lose sight of our author. Grammar, analysis, prosody, geography, elocution, history, etc., must be used just as we would use sidelights, skylights or footlights, in giving the best effect to a painting or a piece of statuary. In such a case the accessories are always considered the most effective when they are least thought of. So the author under consideration must be like the central figure

in a great work of art; in looking at it we must be in a measure unconscious of all aids or accessories.

But to be more positive, after thus stating what must not be done in teaching an English author, allow me to state, with some distinctness, what should be done.

I do not forget that you have asked me to state how the *language* should be taught, and I answer, by means of its literature. "Expression is the dress of thought," and the thought and expression are consequently so intimately connected that they cannot be separated. Let both be taken into the mind together. Let the pupil be taught to receive his author's writings somewhat as he would receive his author's person. He would not, in good society at least, begin by scanning the style of his dress or the quality of his clothing, but would rather seek at once to put himself into as close and agreeable communion with him as possible. He would not entertain him in the spirit of criticism, but rather in that of genial friendship and admiration; and, if benefited by the entertainment, that benefit would be felt rather synthetically than analytically; in the inspiration derived from his whole demeanor rather than in the form of distinct and positive precept. He would find his tone of thought and feeling elevated, but the cause of that elevation might not be easily detected.

When scholars advance from the Grammar to the High School, they are tolerably well versed in technical grammar and logical analysis; sufficiently so to proceed at once to the study of some standard author. Suppose we put them into Scott, and for the sake of distinctness let the poem be "The Lay of the Last Minstrel." The object should at once be to introduce them to the most familiar acquaintance with their author, and this would not be by parsing or analyzing the simple octosyllabic verses, but rather by encouraging an expressive and sympathetic reading or recital of them. Minstrels would naturally receive attention at the outset, and perhaps some notice might be taken and aid derived from the "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border." They would thus be prepared for the story, which never fails to be attractive. The mighty wizard, the goblin page, the lady Margaret, William of Deloraine, and Lord Croustoum, will all impress the youthful imagination. The lan-

guage, too, will of necessity make some impression. But it is not a common impression, — a merely transitory effect, — that should satisfy the teacher. The pupil should acquire that familiarity with the language that will permanently affect the tone of his thoughts and his forms of expression. To do this the language must be more than read and re-read, it must be in large measure committed to the memory. The pathetic description of the "wandering harper," with which the story opens, the moonlight view of Melrose Abbey, the peaceful scene in the valley of the Teviot, the lament of Nature over the minstrel, the glorious burst of patriotism with which the sixth canto opens, all these and much more should be so exactly and so safely fixed in the memory, that no lapse of time can efface them. The language of this great master of expression becomes in this way, as it were, a part of the scholar's intellectual being; the thoughts that breathe and the words that burn become an ideal of style. They show how pure and elevated sentiment is best conveyed in chaste and vigorous expressions. Without thinking of grammar or rhetoric, he has always at his command, in the storehouse of his own memory, the sources from which the precepts of grammar and rhetoric are derived. And, what is more, the language and its enfolded thought become a constant stimulant to the moral feelings. "The words of the wise are as goads, and as nails fastened by the masters of assemblies, which are given from one shepherd." "The words that I speak unto you, they are spirit and they are life." But these words of the sacred writer and of the great Teacher are words in connected discourse, they are not merely the "*disjecta membra*" of grammar and rhetoric.

And here, I claim, is perhaps the best field for the cultivation of the memory; a most important and most neglected part of education. Let it be stored to satiety, if indeed it can be satisfied, with the choicest treasures of our literature. With the memory thus stored, the inventive persons have the best models constantly at their disposal. The happiest efforts of superior talent and genius thus become the models of style and the seeds of thought.

In social and domestic life we judge at once from the bearing of a person what have been his associations; the circle in which a person has moved, its culture, its intelligence, its refinement or

want of refinement, have all left their impress upon his character. Hence it is maintained by some, that no other training in the English language is needed than habitual intercourse with intelligent and refined society. If this be true of the familiar forms of speech employed in common conversation, it is no less true of the more elaborate forms of language in which the more serious and extended trains of thought have been clothed. The theoretical side of the question might be argued at great length, and would lead us into a most interesting discussion of the relations between thought and language. But for this there is no time.

But what has been the actual experience of mankind? How has the best command of language been acquired in all ages and among all nations? The schools of Greece will at once occur to you all, not only as illustrative but as decisive in respect to this question. The study of Homer was a prominent if not the controlling feature of their education; and that study was pursued not as with us by the aid of the grammar and dictionary, but by learning whole rhapsodies with an accuracy and care approaching to religious sanctity. It was, to use the language of another, Homer who was studied in the school-room, it was Homer who gave laws to the artist, it was Homer who thundered in the senate, and more than all it was Homer who was sung by the people. And hence, a nation was cast into the mould of one mighty mind, and the land of the Iliad became the region of truth, the birthplace of the arts. Nor was this influence confined within the limits of Greece alone; long after the sceptre of empire had passed westward, genius still held her court on the banks of the Ilissus, and from the country of Homer gave laws to the world. The voice of national poetry, which like a mild and heavenly teacher opened the minds of the Grecian youth to all that is highest and fairest in man's nature, was not dumb when he reached maturity. Nor did she appear to him chained to the dead letters of writing as an occasional pastime for vacant hours, but in the fairest moments of life she came to him with all her festal bravery on, inspired and inspiring. As she, though born in the dwelling place of the gods, had descended to the life of men to gladden them with the most exalted pleasures; so, among them also, she loved best to appear at

the games and festivals of the gods, and lured the gaze of mortals upward to a higher world.

Nor need I remind you of the well-known example of Demosthenes copying or committing to memory the speeches in Thucydides, or gaining an equal mastery of those of Lysias and Iræus; he may never have seen the rhetoric of Aristotle. And so Quintilian in comparing Demosthenes and Cicero: I allow that the works of Demosthenes should be first read or rather *gotten by heart.* Examples of equal weight may be mentioned from modern history. It has been the fashion with a certain class of critics to accuse Shakespeare and Milton of plagiarism, simply because they had so completely mastered the language of the great masters of style that resemblances occur on almost every page of their writings. Resemblances indeed there are, but they are no more plagiarisms than the splendors of the vegetable world are plagiarisms of the sunshine and showers that have called forth their beauties. There are atoms and molecules in our bodies, doubtless, which formed portions of the inferior animals at no distant period; but it would be hardly true on this account to style us plagiarists.

Franklin burning the midnight oil over the pages of Addison, Daniel Webster committing to memory the speech of Fisher Ames on the British treaty, or sitting up the greater part of the night to read and repeat Watts's hymns, show the close connection and natural affinities that exist between the finest minds, and the best forms of speech. Macaulay could repeat the whole of Paradise Lost, and was greatly annoyed when Sidney Smith caught him tripping in a single word.

I have been over the whole poem anew, he writes to Smith, and you will not catch me again.

[The remainder of this valuable paper will be given in our next number.]

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"Grant me to become beautiful in the inner man, and that whatever outward things I have, may be at peace with those within."

## CONCERNING CERTAIN OPINIONS OF FOREIGNERS.

INTELLIGENT foreigners almost invariably charge our American School System with trying to force all the pupils into one mould, to make every child a fac-simile of every other. They accuse us of adhering too closely to text-books, to prescribed forms and rules, of crushing out individuality and producing an unpleasant monotone in our mental cultivation.

Now it is certain that a teacher who works by prescribed rules and formulæ is not likely to free our American Schools from this charge, which is a grave one preferred against us. Let us have individuality and originality, a certain spontaneity in our teachers if we expect to find any freedom of thought and development in our pupils. And what must the effect be of placing our teachers under rigid rules where they are allowed no scope for their own individual way of proceeding, no digression on account of the peculiar powers or tendencies of any one class, but to justify these strictures of our transatlantic critics, and sink teaching to the level of machinery, and teachers to machines which are to grind out regularly so much an hour?

If we have graded schools, and no one will deny that we must, we must have also some course of study. Certain text-books must be prescribed for all the schools in a large city, and each teacher in every grade will of course desire to know about how far in each study the average class can safely and thoroughly proceed in a given time. There is a certain satisfaction, too, in having some prescribed amount which is to be done in a prescribed time. One walks more cheerfully and readily if he is expected to go only a certain distance, than if the whole earth lay before him as a possible promenade ground.

By all means then let our teachers have some idea of how much they are expected to teach in a given time. But shall we bind them so closely by limitations that they shall have no chance for spontaneous development? One would think such a question impertinent in the present age, had he not happened to stumble across a copy of the Fifteenth Annual Report of Public Schools for the city and county of San Francisco, for the school year end-

ing June, 1868. It is to be feared that if general statements were made about the character of the restrictions imposed on the teachers of that place, this paper would be deemed unworthy of credence; therefore, to prove the truth of my implied criticism, I am forced to enter somewhat into particulars. If you will bear with me while I quote some of the directions given, I think you will be inclined with me to ask the questions: What teachers who are good for anything will submit to be so hampered and restrained in every way? Do not such regulations tend in the most direct way utterly to destroy all the genuine teaching talent and teaching spirit to be found in the ranks?

In the first place under the General Directions, the teachers are told that "the specific directions of Willson's Manual Readers and Spellers shall be followed in detail, and in Oral Instruction and other subjects, the suggestions of the Reference Books shall be pursued as far as practicable." These Reference Books as named are, Willson's Manual of Instruction, Sheldon's Elementary Instruction, Calkins' Lessons on Objects, and Cowdery's Moral Lessons; and these books are referred to most unsparingly through all the directions for the different grades, certain pages even being designated to be read during certain times. Again, the teachers are most explicitly told that "at least two copy books must be written through each term." No matter how fast or how slowly, how well or how ill a pupil may write, he must write through "at least two copy books." But this is a reasonable thing compared to putting the boundary at the other end and saying, "Beyond this point no one must proceed" as is done in so many directions.

The schools of the city are divided into ten grades, the lowest five requiring five months each to complete it, and the six upper ones, one year each. In the tenth grade, in arithmetic we find that the pupils may be taught reading and writing numbers to *one hundred*, but in adding and substracting small numbers we must not exceed *four* + *ten*, nor must we teach the Roman numerals farther than XXV. We may add on the blackboard or slate, units, but we must have no number larger than *five*, and the amount of the additions must by no means exceed twenty-five. For methods, we are sent

to Sheldon, Willson, and Calkins; the pages in each of these books being kindly pointed out. If we give Moral Lessons we are not permitted to read stories. We must *tell* them. Now, though every teacher would certainly prefer to tell a story than to *read* it, it is not pleasant to be told to do this, implying of course that we should never have thought of it ourselves. We may give several object lessons, but seven objects are named which we are to take for the subjects of our lessons; and for the rest, we may take those mentioned in "Calkins, p. 308." We are limited in the same way precisely in our lessons on animals; and we are somewhat surprised to find that with regard to the parts of the body, we are simply referred to pages 189–200 Calkins' Manual, and that we do not find this direction: "The parts of the hand may here be taught as far as the third joint counting from the ends of the fingers, but the thumb shall not be mentioned in this grade."

We pass on to the ninth grade. In the tenth, the teacher was required to correct "all faulty expressions" of the pupils; here she makes a forward step and may also correct "faulty pronunciation." We may now have to count to one thousand, and may write Roman numerals to fifty, and we may pass the goal of four + ten and advance as far as six + ten, and we may "count by ones, twos, fives, and tens, but only to one hundred. The teacher may now allow her columns of units to reach the sum of one hundred instead of twenty-five; and as for methods, she will find them carefully laid down, "Sheldon 168–179, and Calkins 138–154." In morals and manners the unfortunate pupils are to listen to stories from Abbott's Library Book, and they may also be treated to lessons from Willson's Intermediate Third Readers, methods to be found as before. We are to teach "the inch, foot, and yard by marking lengths on the blackboard and by actually measuring with sticks," and we may teach that twelve inches = one foot, and three feet = one yard, but no more. Refer, of course, for methods to Sheldon, 200–207. (In passing we would remark that they must be using the old edition of Sheldon's Elementary Instruction.) Having named in the tenth grade the names of the five principal streets, and "located the house of each pupil," we are now given ten places of note in or around the city, the locations of which are to be taught. We

may give object lessons on glass, slate, water and milk; and we shall find out how, by referring to "Calkins, 308–317."

In the eighth grade, we are permitted in arithmetic to count to one hundred by twos, beginning with one; but lest we should not understand how, an example is given "as one, three, five, seven, nine, etc.," and review counting on even numbers by twos, fives and tens. (How one can count on even numbers by fives we are at a loss to determine.) Freedom begins to dawn, for we may now read and write actually to ten thousand, amd may write the Roman numerals to one hundred, and we may teach addition too, as far as ten times ten. But we may teach only the line of two in the multiplication table, and that line goes only as far as two times ten. Why we may not inerease the amount of our columns of units does not appear, but it is perhaps because the intricate mazes of the line of two are considered sufficiently trying for five months. And we may multiply units in the form of written arithmetic. But, alas! the product must not exceed twenty. Here, too, we may teach the sign "$" but lest too avaricious ideas should be excited, let us not exceed $10,000, in writing. We may draw a square foot and a square inch on the board, but why not a square yard the inscrutable wisdom answers not. We may also measure the length of objects in the school-room, and we shall find *how* to do these things by consulting "Sheldon 200–207." Names of objects are prescribed to us as before, but it seems very indefinite merely to give the name of the object, — for as one may give fifty different lessons on coal for instance, as one may determine the point of the lesson, one would think that the aim of the lesson should be prescribed as well as the object from which it is to be given. Is it not dangerous to trust teachers to so great an extent? In geography, we are to learn the location of some eighteen other places of note in the city.

In the seventh grade the pupils shall be taught to use capital letters at the beginning, and periods at the close of sentences, but they are not to learn that the pronoun "I" is a capital till the next year. "Long slate pencils must be used in writing." Whether they shall be sharpened or not, strange to say, is left to the discretion of the teacher, provided she has any by this time. She must

also "use general exercises to secure freedom of movement," but here no directions whatever are given. A great leap is made in the Multiplication Table, for we may have as far as $6 \times 12$, and we may write numbers to 1,000,000 and Roman numerals to 1,000. And now we may add columns of tens and units, provided the amount does not exceed 1,000. We are told we are to "teach pupils to read and write fractions *not to exceed* 10ths and it seems that this gives the broadest scope, unless the words "*to exceed*" mean "not smaller than." We are to multiply tens and units by units, but our product "must not exceed 100, as $24 \times 4$." And we may also teach how to write examples in Division with only unit figures for the divisor, and we are spared the trouble of consulting Sheldon or Calkins, for just here in the report an example is given. Under form we are to teach the oval and the ellipse, among a collection of twelve surfaces, but how the children are to be taught to distinguish between the oval and the ellipse we are *not* told.

I fear that this paper will grow tiresome by its detail, unless the reader is as much interested as I have been to watch the gradual progress of the pupils' minds, especially in arithmetic and geography. If so, he will be interested to inquire with me, why in the sixth grade we may teach Liquid Measure only to gallons, and rejoice that now we may add the square yard to our square foot and inch drawn five months before. In written multiplication our multiplier must be only a "unit figure and the multiplicand must be limited to six places," while in written division we may have only three places in the dividend, and our divisor must be in all cases two. "Subtraction to be limited to four places, and the 'reasons for borrowing' not to be required." The spirit of San Francisco must be very different from that of Chicago, for in the latter place one would infer they were very particular to require the "reasons for borrowing," judging from an immense sign in the Union depot, which reads thus: "Passengers are warned not to lend their money to strangers." In this grade we are first permitted to call the "moral judgment into exercise to determine the right or wrong of actions, with some of the simple reasons for such opinions," and ten moral maxims are to be learned. Here a new subject makes its appearance, though it is partially concealed under the head of

plants. It consists of the names of the President, the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor of California, and the Mayor and principal officers of the City of San Francisco. As before, much of the instruction in geography consists of the location of some twenty places. But a globe is here to be introduced, and the equator, axes ( ?), poles and daily revolutions are to be made familiar. At this point, too, the "pupils may learn to distinguish the time of day by the clock."

In the next grade, the fifth, we are to teach "ten new maxims" in morals and manners, and have the class "commit to memory ten stanzas from the best poets." Here one observes a sudden freedom. True, we must teach ten stanzas, but we can choose whether we shall have two lines or sixteen in a stanza; and we are left entirely at liberty to teach Chaucer or Ben Jonson or Browning.

But the fourth grade presents a problem, for in that we must teach "the location of continents and oceans, latitude, longitude, meridians, parallels, poles, equator and the revolution of the earth *in five lessons!* I have heard of a candidate for military honors who, during his preliminary examination, was asked, "What would you do, sir, if you were in command of a division and found yourself in front of an impassable river, with an invincible enemy in your rear?" "I should resign, sir," was the prompt and satisfactory reply. And most certainly if I were required to teach all the above named subjects satisfactorily to the best class that I ever saw in any Normal School, and were limited to five lessons to do it in, I should unhesitatingly follow his example. But the fact is, where one attempts to draw boundaries so close, he comes very near to having none at all, merely demonstrating by a kind of dialectic the utter futility of his attempt. For the length of the lessons is not prescribed, neither has our Superintendent defined for us the limits of any one of the subjects we are to teach. And in geography, the connections and ramifications of subjects are so close and fine that one hardly knows where one begins and another ends. The subject of the revolution of the earth, for instance, certainly comprehends the phenomena of the seasons and of day and night, including also the varying lengths of days and nights. It requires considerable mathematical clearness as to planes, angles, degrees,

and spheres; the horizon and the north star must be mentioned, and here we touch astronomy, and so on. As to state one single fact of our daily lives perfectly and fully, we must state every thing existing, the only difference between people seems to be often as to *how much* of a fact they recognize. If one recognizes the whole, he is a transcendental philosopher; if only a little of it, he is called "eminently practical." This, however, is a wide digression into which I was unwittingly led by discovering how, when one tries to limit a subject, he defeats his own end.

I think, on the whole, I should decidedly object to assuming the work of the fourth grade, for I find also that I must teach the pupils to write promissory notes, orders and bills till every member of the class can write each form correctly and creditably. I should not, with twelve years of experience behind me, like to warrant that any class could do this. Then, besides in this grade, I must "teach and explain the principal trades, occupations and professions." What it may be to explain the blacksmith's trade or the profession of the ministry, I am not quite clear, and I certainly must class these among "principal trades and professions." Habits of personal neatness are to be inculcated under the guidance of "Sheldon, 384–418, and every Friday I must spend half an hour in questioning pupils about the library books which they have read during the week."

In the third grade, the "rules for fundamental and fractional operations must be learned, but not required to be memorized in the exact language of the book." I wonder whether the author of these directions has once been a teacher, and has had a class recite rules in arithmetic in their own words. Is not one thing to be taught in our schools, the proper, correct and concise use of language? If a pupil understands what the rule means, why not have it given in the fewest and best words? In this grade "not more than five examples may be assigned to be performed at home, and not more than three difficult problems." In manners and morals we are to teach "five short pieces of poetry from the best poets, to be dictated by the teacher and copied by the pupils."

At last, "through much tribulation," we arrive at the first grade, and have our curiosity at once strongly excited by finding that in

Robinson's Practical Arithmetic, "paragraphs 270 to 291, 302 to 306, 325 to 351, 396 to 406, 429 to and including promiscuous examples," are "to be omitted in schools for girls and for girls in mixed schools." What these mysterious paragraphs are which it is not considered wise for girls to study, I am not able to say, as I have not Robinson at hand. We know that in England separate copy-books are provided for girls and boys, and that an Englishwoman's handwriting is considered to be improper "if it cannot easily be distinguished from that of a man," but that there are subjects in our common arithmetics which it would not be good exercise for girls to study must be a California theory.

In grammar in this grade, the Declaration of Independence and the *Constitution of the United States* are to be analyzed. It seems to me I should prefer Milton's Paradise Lost, or even Pollock's "Course of Time." The work in geography for this grade is fearfully broad, and one year would not begin to complete it.

But enough. It is doubtless easy for a Superintendent, in the quiet of his study, to draw up a set of directions for an abstract class, but unfortunately, abstract classes are not found in the seats of our school-rooms. And if the same Superintendent were put into a school-room with fifty or sixty children, and obliged to carry out his own instructions, I think he would discover many points in which they might be amended. But aside from this, even one's servants grow impatient if we prescribe their duties too closely. Every one needs for his own self-respect to have some liberty allowed for his own judgment. If I am answered there are some servants who will not take any responsibility, I ask in return, "What kind of servants are they?"

I hazard the assertion that of all the cities and towns of our country, the best educational work is done in those places where the Committee, after satisfying themselves of the fitness of their teachers, give to them the largest liberty. It may not be the most showy work, but it is the *best.* Commend me to such places for active, energetic, thoroughly alive, original teachers and scholars.

The teacher confined by rules like those I have quoted, must inevitably fall into routine, and move in ruts. Even if the rules were throughout philosophical this must be the case, but where as

here they seem to have been made by following certain text-books, so many pages in succession, where at one time they contract and at another enlarge the scope they allow to the teacher, they are less like the gentle and constant trade-winds which will bear the pupils on securely and surely, than like the baffling breezes of the tropical calms which force one to describe unsatisfactory circles and complicated triangles in his course, and flatter with hope of progress only to annoy, perplex, and disappoint.

A. C. B.

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## PRIMARY TEACHING.

MUCH is said and written on the dignity of teaching, and ideal standards are constantly held up before us, which upon some act as an inspiration, upon others as a discouragement. It is admitted there are many difficulties to overcome in primary teaching and this fact is used as a reason why the highest talent is needed in the Primary Schools. Teachers read these articles and say "This is all true, all beautiful, but how are we to reach any ideal standard even approximately?"

This question may never be answered satisfactorily. Our standards will continue to be far above our attainments; and the higher the attainment the farther off may seem the standard. It is only by climbing that we are able to take in a view of how much lies beyond us. The ideal which draws us ever so little upward is not presented in vain. That it still eludes our grasp is then no reason for discouragement.

Children are brought to us of every possible grade of capacity and peculiarity of character, and the teachers who lay the foundations are expected to bring out of this crude variety, something like uniformity. The Grammar School will apply the same tests to the bright and the dull child, making it necessary to aim at equality of attainment. This cannot be reached perfectly, yet is often in a greater degree than at first seems possible.

God has distributed natural gifts among children more equally than may always be apparent. The brightest child in the room will often prove markedly deficient in some one thing, while the dullest

will display some single faculty in a more than average degree. One of the first things to be done with a dull child, is to discover his one talent and put it to use; it may become two, possibly ten. There are those who seem to think a symmetrical development can only be secured by neglecting this one ability, because the child naturally employs it sufficiently, and forcing into exercise the faculties he possesses in a lower degree and uses for that very reason painfully and reluctantly. Instead of this, his *one* ability may be used as the lever by which all the others may be raised, perhaps not to an equality with it, but to a much higher level than they could possibly reach without it.

The powers of the mind are so related to each other that no one of them can be used vigorously without laying tribute upon all the rest, and through its leadership bringing them into active service in the harmonious development of the whole character.

The successful teacher will continually seize upon children's peculiarities and turn them to account. It is the instinct of childhood as well as the ambition of manhood to stand well among its peers. This feeling may be encouraged in the most backward scholar, by never allowing his deficiencies to blind us to his merits, and by always giving full credit for the one thing he does well. Indiscriminate praise, merely for the sake of encouragement, only serves to confuse his ideas of desert and reward. When only things done really well are praised, he will soon naturally seek commendation in some new direction.

Let a child in the fifth class who is a poor speller, but who has an accurate eye and hand, spend a good deal of time printing a spelling lesson. Praise his slate, and, if he is not set to work at something else, he will do it over again still better than at first. I have frequently found little slates with the lesson neatly printed four times. By the attention necessary to do this, the spelling lesson was conquered, and two objects accomplished without any difficult effort. Little children often learn to spell hard words by recalling a picture of them and the position of the letters, as older children learn a geography lesson by fixing in the mind a picture of the map they have studied. Perhaps no one exercise will tend more to awaken a desire for excellence than careful at-

tention to everything done on the slate, — what is awkward can there be so easily pointed out in the form and arrangement, and even by a child can be understood. The training thus given to the eye, in time helps him to reject whatever is awkward and uncouth, and to strive after what is perfect in every effort he makes. When he has received the idea of doing things prettily, an important point is gained, inasmuch as he must first know how to do things correctly.

The earnest teacher looks upon the variety of slow and quiet, or restless and active children before her, and wonders how she is to deal with all these, so that general uniformity of government shall prevail, while the management of each child shall be what he individually needs. She who can gather up and hold steadily the reins formed of so many cords, without making the active to feel continually hampered, and the slow goaded beyond their pace, must have in her own character the strength and harmony which act as a pervading atmosphere upon the susceptibilities of those around her. Children are especially sensitive to such influence. The teacher becomes not only a strong magnet, attracting to herself, but regulating and setting limits for the time being to all other attractions and tendencies. This power cannot be obtained by any course of preparation and remain with us as in a repository. It is constantly spent, and if not renewed is slowly wasted.

We are conscious every day of giving out something of our own life, physical and intellectual, which must be renewed by rest or counter exercise, or by both. For the scholar much variety may be introduced into the school-room, but to the teacher it is only a different way of doing the same thing. Leading children over a certain ground, and returning to pass over the same road every six months, has little in it to keep the mind of the teacher herself fresh and vigorous, and in a few years she finds herself in the danger so much talked of, namely, "running into ruts." She is advised to keep posted on all the new methods, to read educational works, etc. This is all wise and right, is really a part of school duty, but is not sufficient to remedy an evil arising largely from the habit of mind formed by the necessity of constant repetition, as it still keeps the mind occupied with the subjects which, under different

aspects have occupied it all day. An effort to rest will not always secure the desired end. The mind perhaps reverts again and again to its work, worries, and wears upon itself and seems incapable of rest. Taking up a new course of reading or becoming really interested in a study, without direct reference to the school-room, will often furnish the counter exercise which is better than rest, and bring more freshness and elasticity. The mind long strained in one direction needs more than rest to bring it back to its proper poise; it needs some strong influence in another. Nor is this any loss to the school-room, but rather an advantage. All knowledge gained can be used as capital to be drawn upon at pleasure. More than this; we teach as much by what we are as by what we do and say. What truly enriches our own lives will be reflected in the school-room and scatter blessing there.

Teachers complain that they have no strength left after school work for effort in other directions. This arises in part because we are apt to carry home with us and dwell more upon the perplexities of the school-room than upon its pleasures. It is right to dwell on these enough to devise remedies, but not enough to wear seriously upon our strength and happiness. Few of us have such self-control as to dismiss them and command for ourselves rest, while many might be able to put them to flight by opening the mind to other trains of thought or actual pursuit.

We shall sometimes find committee-men who are very suspicious of "outside interests," but these same men value the qualities which outside interests properly pursued always strengthen, and sometimes create. If they are right interests, and never allowed to crowd out school duties, the more they are pursued the better.

In electing a teacher, mental activity, attainment and culture are all in her favor. Why should not the course which will increase these qualities still continue to be in her favor, instead of awakening suspicion and distrust?

I hear the question, — "What has all this to do with teaching little children?"

Some one has compared the mind of a child to a pure white tablet ready to receive a succession of impressions from every object which passes before it; then let the reflected image of every

characteristic of the teacher be such that we may never wish it to be effaced.

A writer for the *Teacher* says truly that "a child is the most beautiful work of God"; then also is a mature, finely developed character his noblest. In the raising of this wonderful structure he employs many workers. It may be our task to lay foundations, it may be, to carry on work already begun, or possibly to bring treasures with which to enrich the more finished fabric; but in any case, if we have the true spirit of teachers, we are working in our humble way with Him and for Him, who is seeking to lead every soul upward out of the bondage of ignorance and sin, into the freedom of wisdom and truth. M. K.

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## A CLASS EXERCISE IN GEOGRAPHY.

THE class began the study of Geography under my instruction. The globe was used to illustrate to them the form of the earth and the arrangement of land and water upon its surface. The names Old and New Worlds, Eastern and Western Hemispheres, Continents and Oceans were applied and their relative positions were noticed. This was followed by the representation and study of North America, Guyot's Primary Geography being used as a reference book.

The class were led to associate the mountains, valleys, rivers and lakes which they had seen with those of which they learned and which they had not seen. They are now studying South America.

You will best become able to judge what we are doing by accompanying me to the recitation room. They bring maps, which they present for my inspection. A division of the class is sent to the boards; another division rises and names points of the diagram, while those at the boards represent. The diagrams are lightly erased, and points of the outline are fixed, as named by some portion of the class. The last direction, "Finish the outline," having been followed, those at the boards sit; their places are filled by others, and the recitation begins.

Here is a map of South America.

The form of South America is triangular, the coast lines sloping towards each other from north to south.

South America is the fourth continent in size. Asia, Africa and North America are larger. The greatest length of South America is from north to south; its greatest width is from east to west; its area is six million and five hundred and sixty thousand square miles.

South America is in the Western Hemisphere, and forms a part of the New World. It is bounded on the north and east by the Atlantic, on the south by the Southern Ocean, on the west by the Pacific.

The coast line of South America is less irregular than that of North America.

In the western part of South America, are mountain ranges which extend the length of the continent, and form a wall along the Pacific coast. I will represent. The mountains here represented are called the Andes.

In the eastern part of South America is a table-land which is crossed by low mountain ranges, those upon the eastern coast being higher than the others. I will represent. The table-land here represented is called the table-land of Brazil.

In the northern part of South America is mountain land which I will represent.

Lying between the Andes and the table-land of Brazil is a great plain, which is here represented. Flowing through this plain are rivers. I will represent one which has its source in the Andes, and which flows eastward more than 3,000 miles. The river here represented is called the Amazon.

Having its source in the mountain-land of the north, is a river which I will represent. The river here represented is called the Orinoco.

Flowing through the southern part of the plain, and gathering its waters from the Andes and the table-land of Brazil, is a river here represented, which is called the La Plata.

On each side of the Amazon, near its mouth, are marshes. Beyond the marshes are plains covered with forests; these forest plains are called selvás.

Trees grow upon the banks of the Orinoco; but beyond the banks are plains without trees, which are called the Llanos.

The plains about the mouth of the La Plata are covered with tall grass and thistles; these plains are called Pampas.

Near the source of the La Plata is a plain covered with forests; this plain forms the grand hunting ground of the Indians, and is called the Grand Chaco.

We will now suppose ourselves to cross the Andes from the eastern side.

At the foot of the mountains the weather is warm, like summer; here we find orange trees, palms, and pine apples.

We ride on mules, for the mountain paths are dangerous, and the mules are more sure-footed than we.

Some of the way the path leads us close to the edge of precipices, where a single misstep would send us down hundreds of feet.

We cross bridges unlike those we have seen; they are made of ropes hung over the chasms, and covered with the boughs of trees. We fear the mules will step through and let us fall; but they do not.

As we ascend the slope we come to where the weather is spring-like, and here we find maples, elms, and other trees like those found in our own country.

Higher up it is cold, and there are no trees; but there are plants with glossy green leaves and pink blossoms; these plants are called rhododendrons; they like to grow where it is cold.

By and by we come to the top of the mountain; and looking around, we see it is a barren plain with here and there a snowy peak. These peaks send out fire and smoke and are called volcanoes. One of them, Chimborazo, was long thought to be the highest peak in the world.

Thus they go on; and while talking, their hands have been busy. You see the slope with a tree at the foot, where the oranges grow; another, higher up, where it is spring, and elms are found.

Here is the mule who carries us over dangerous paths. Here is the summit of the range, with its smoking volcano.

We will suppose they have taken you with them down the first range, across the valley, and over the second range to the Pacific coast.

Now I must teach them something in advance.

The table-land of Brazil was represented and named, directly after the Andes; from this the class infer that our next work will be to learn what we can of it.

They already know that it is crossed by low mountain ranges. I tell them we will visit these mountains. Their faces brighten at the proposed journey, and we are instantly transported to Brazil. We follow the mountain streams and pick up pebbles from the water. Suddenly we see something bright among the pebbles! Look at the children; they believe I will plunge my hand into the water and bring this bright treasure to their view. "It is a lump of gold." The hand opens, but is empty!

Charley comes to our relief, with the words "Father has some gold he got in the Sierra Nevada mountains, and if he will let me I will bring it to school to-morrow."

The teaching goes on; the books are opened and the text is examined.

The topic for the next lesson is the table-land of Brazil. Maps are to be drawn upon the boards, before the time for recitation.

The class is excused. B.

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## OUR TEACHER.

Our teacher wears no vain array
  Of silks and satins sheen,
But ever in a simple dress,
  With quiet air is seen;
Though many *pages* tend her steps,
  No look of pride she wears,
Though many a *title* is her own,
  She meekly honor bears.

And ever when we gladly greet
  Our friend, she doth reveal
Her wisdom, in low tones, that make
  Us less to hear than feel.
And though with earnest zeal she tries
  To lead our steps aright,
No wild fanatic words she speaks, —
  In silence is her might.

Full young she is, her quiet life
  Counts years but twenty-one,
Yet her well-ordered youth does more
  Than many a sage has done;
Grave thoughts and earnest truths she brings
  Before our searching eyes,
Till duty grows less stern and hard,
  Clothed in her pleasant guise.

Yet, though with grace and truth adorned,
  No vanity she knows,
And under *cover* all her thoughts
  Of goodness would enclose.
But they who ask will e'er receive,
  And they who seek will find,
Lift but her veil of modesty,
  The *volume* hid behind.

A critic too our teacher is,
  And wisely does review
Those books wherein our minds may seek
  For what is good and new.
The truths in others' writings she
  Unselfishly makes known,
For public and not private weal,
  Commands her thoughts alone.

But having heard her praises sung
  You ask our teacher's name,
More pens than mine might tell, for she
  Is not unknown to fame,
But if you still, in ignorance
  Pursue your eager quest,
But close the covers of this book,
  And — look, you'll see the rest.

DAY.

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## RULES FOR DOING GOOD.

"Do all the good you can
  In all the ways you can,
  To all the people you can,
  In every place you can,
  At all the times you can,
  As long as ever you can."

# Editors' Department.

## THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

We have examined with great interest and satisfaction the volume just issued by the Board of Education of Massachusetts. It contains a large amount of facts and suggestions which cannot fail to be encouraging and useful to the friends of popular education. The formal report of the Board, for the year just gone, was prepared by the retiring member, Prof. John P. Marshall, of Tufts College, a gentleman whose long and successful experience as an educator peculiarly fitted him for the duties of the office which for eight years he has most faithfully and usefully filled. The report gives a brief review of the condition of education in the State, and truly says that a perusal of the accompanying documents "will convince the reader that the public schools have never enjoyed before, to so great an extent, the confidence of the people, nor so fully realized the hopes of the friends of popular education." A considerable portion of the report relates to the increase in the relative number of female teachers. Among the facts presented are these: In 1858, 76 per cent of all the public school teachers were females; in 1868 the per cent of females was 87, an increase of 11 per cent in ten years. The proportion of ladies in the mixed Normal School at Bridgewater has increased in ten years from 64 per cent to 76 per cent; and at Westfield from 73 per cent to 90 per cent.

The Board have voted to establish in the State Normal Schools a two years' course of study, supplementary to the present course, and designed especially to qualify ladies to teach in the public High Schools. This action of the Board seems to us wise, for there is certainly a large demand among the High Schools for teachers who, in addition to the possession of good literary qualifications, have given particular attention to the study of the principles and methods of teaching.

The reports of the several Boards of Visitors of the four State

Normal Schools show that all those schools are in an unusually prosperous condition.

The report of Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of the Board of Education, is a valuable and interesting document. It presents first the school statistics for the year 1867–8. As the great majority of our readers will not have access to the report of the Secretary, and as the statistics he gives are of interest to all educators in Massachusetts, and to many in other States, we copy in full the following

### Summary of Statistics for 1867–8.

No. of cities and towns, 336.

All the cities and towns have made the required annual returns, except one (Hyde Park), incorporated at the last session.

No. of School Districts, 1,834.

No. of School Houses, 3,350.

No. of Public Schools, 4,937. Increase for the year, 99.

No. of persons in the State between 5 and 15 years of age, May 1, 1867, 266,745. Increase for the year, 5,247.

No. of scholars of all ages in all the public schools in summer, 242,760. Increase for the year, 7,519.

No. of scholars of all ages in all the public schools in winter, 243,425. Increase for the year, 6,061.

Average attendance in all the public schools in summer, 195,216. Increase for the year, 6,067.

Average attendance in all the public schools in winter, 199,228. Increase for the year, 8,274.

Ratio of the mean average attendance for the year to the whole number of persons between five and fifteen years, expressed in decimals, .74.

Number of children under five years of age attending public schools, 3,450. Decrease for the year, 449.

No. of persons over fifteen attending public schools, 23,347. Increase for the year, 1,371.

No. of teachers in summer: males, 452; females, 5,445; total, 5,897. Increase of males, 13; females, 158; total increase, 171.

No. of teachers in winter: males, 905; females, 5,068; total, 5,973. Decrease of males, 31; increase of females, 197; total increase, 166.

No. of different persons employed as teachers in public schools during the year: males, 989; females, 6,863; total, 7,852. Decrease of males, 31; increase of females, 124; total increase, 93.

Average length of public schools, eight months and three days. Increase for the year, one day.

Average wages of male teachers (including High School teachers), per month, $72.93. Increase for the year, $6.01.

Average wages of female teachers, per month, $27.84. Increase for the year, $1.40.

Amount raised by taxes for the support of public schools, including only wages, board, fuel, care of fires and school-rooms, $2,635,774.06. Increase for the year, $280,268.10.

Income of surplus revenue and similar funds appropriated for public schools, and reckoned the same as tax, $4,654.24.

Voluntary contributions to maintain or prolong public schools, or to purchase apparatus, etc., $32,790.35.

Amount of local school funds, the income of which can be appropriated only for the support of schools and academies, $1,165,112.81.

Income of local school funds appropriated for schools and academies, $74,467.24.

Income of the State School Fund, payable January 25, in each year. Amount received by the cities and towns in aid of public schools for the school year 1867–8, $88,988.91.

Amount paid for the superintendence of schools and printing of School Reports, $88,496.96. Increase for the year, $11,717.29.

Aggregate returns as expended on Public Schools alone, exclusive of expense of repairing and erecting school-houses, and of school-books, $2,850,704.52. Increase for the year, $318,963.90.

Sum raised by taxes (including income of surplus revenue and of funds held on similar conditions, $4,654.24) exclusive of taxes for school edifices, for the education in the Public Schools, of each child in the State between five and fifteen years of age — per child, $9.89$\frac{8}{10}$. Increase for the year, $0.87$\frac{3}{10}$.

Percentage of the valuation of 1865, appropriated for public schools, two mills and sixty-two hundredths. Increase for the year twenty-eight hundredths.

All the towns in the State have raised the amount ($3.00 for each person between five and fifteen), required by law as a condition of receiving a share of the income of the State School Fund, with the exception of the three following, viz: Lanesboro', West Stockbridge, and Richmond.

Number of towns that have raised the sum of $3.00, or more, for each person between five and fifteen, 332. Increase for the year, 5.

Number of schools returned as High Schools. Number of High Schools kept according to the Statutes. Number of Incorporated Academies returned, 48.

Average number of scholars 3,172. Decrease for the year, 524.

Amount paid for tuition, $124,267.27. Decrease for the year, $19,255 52.

Number of Private Schools and Academies returned, 550. Decrease for the year, 3.

Estimated average attendance, 13,957. Decrease for the year, 450.

Estimated amount of tuition paid, $409,910.90. Decrease for the year, $6,283.23.

Estimated value of public school-houses in 1867, as returned, $9,603,674.24.

Amount paid in 1867, for erecting and repairing school-houses for Public Schools, $1,495,573.78.

Amount expended on Public Schools alone, including the interest on money invested in school-houses at their present estimated value as appraised by the School Committees, including also the expense of erecting and repairing school-houses as returned for the year 1867, and the estimated annual cost of school-books, is about five millions of dollars ($4,997,498.75), or $18.73 for every person in the State between five and fifteen years of age.

If to the above amount there is added the several sums appropriated by the Legislature in aid of public instruction, as for Normal Schools, Teachers' Institutes, Board of Education, etc., the whole sum annually expended for the support and improvement of Public Schools, is five millions and seventy thousand dollars, or $19 per child, between five and fifteen.

Adding to the foregoing amount expended for Public Schools, the sums derived from tuition and income of funds paid for the support of academies and private schools, not including expense of school edifices and school-books for such institutions, not easily ascertained or estimated, and the whole amount expended on schools and academies in Massachusetts, exclusive of colleges and professional schools, is five millions, five hundred and fifty thousand ($5,548,477.00) per annum, or $20.75 per scholar in the State, between five and fifteen years of age.

Following the statistics, the recent State Legislation in relation to schools is specified. The subject of the training of the deaf and dumb is there considered, and reference is made to the different systems pursued in the deaf and dumb schools at Northampton and Hartford. About thirty annual pupils in the institution at Northampton, and one hundred in that of Hartford are supported by the State, at an annual cost of $175 each. The doings of the Agent of the Board are alluded to, and the need of an additional Agent is shown. The Secretary recommends a more thorough system of general supervision of public schools, and presents important considerations in favor of establishing the office of County Superintendent of Schools. It appears from the report that all the cities and a large number of towns have already chosen school superintendents for their several municipalities. The practice of employing one practical educator to supervise the schools of each city or town is daily growing in the public favor.

Training Schools for young teachers are favorably mentioned and the plan of a very successful one in Woburn is given.

### High Schools.

The following extract from the Secretary's Report will gratify all friends of the Massachusetts System of High Schools.

"We learn from Mr. Mann's first report, made in February, 1838, 'that in this Commonwealth there were forty-three towns, exclusive of the City of Boston, coming within the provisions' of the act requiring every town having five hundred

families or householders to maintain a school for the benefit of all the inhabitants of the town, known in popular language as the High School; and that in only fourteen towns were such schools maintained. Indeed, if judged strictly, the number was only eleven.

By the census of 1865 it appears that there are one hundred and thirty-two towns required by law to maintain these schools. It is a gratifying fact that in one hundred and twenty-four of these, including the City of Boston, one hundred and thirty-five High Schools are now in operation; while in twenty-eight towns, not coming within the provisions of the law, such schools are maintained, and, with very few exceptions not less then nine months in the year."

### Evening Schools.

Incomplete returns show that in 1868 twenty-one Evening Schools were maintained in seventeen towns and cities with an attendance of 2,772 pupils, who were taught by 105 teachers at an expense of $6,403.13. New Bedford has the honor of having made the largest appropriation for evening schools.

The Secretary closes his Report with some just remarks in regard to the District System, a system which, we are glad to believe, is destined to come to a speedy end.

The extracts from the town school reports are numerous and valuable. According to the tables of school returns, Brookline has the honor of paying the largest sum ($29.825) for the education of each child between the ages of five and fifteen. The town of Florida pays for each child the largest per cent of its taxable property. It pays $6\frac{56}{100}$ mills on each dollar of its valuation.

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## MEETING AT THE EDUCATIONAL ROOM, FEB. 6, 1869.

The meeting was called to order by the President, Mr. M. G. Daniell, of Boston, who announced as the subject, "Arithmetic," which, though discussed at the last meeting, had not been exhausted, and a further consideration of it had been deemed advisable, especially the department of mental arithmetic and its relation to the written.

Mr. Eaton, of Charlestown, on invitation, said that he thought too much was demanded of scholars. In schools the pupils are often required to know the use of figures to billions. It would be better for them to know completely sixty-eight, in its various combinations with smaller numbers, than five hundred thousand imperfectly. Again, in respect to the manner of laying out a course of study; no objection is made to the programme of any committee, if the teacher is not constrained by it. Somebody ought to be free. Page programmes tend to make teachers mere agents to cram. Let the course be by topics, not by pages, as in some programmes. Every course is, however, largely impracticable, on account of the varying qualities of children and of teachers. Some children

require different treatment from others, and teachers have different qualifications. By a programme the subjects are to be taken up in one unvarying order. If I am competent to teach I am competent to lay out a course of study for my school; if not, an imposed course will not increase my efficiency.

Any teacher of judgment and capacity does not like to be hampered quite so much. The Charlestown course for the Third Class ends with Partial Payments. Profit and Loss, if desired, cannot be taken up before other topics, especially if much work is laid out. Either the teacher is trammelled, or the profession cramped so as to keep good men out of it. One of the arguments used is that a child, going from one school to another, can be classified. Now is it right to vary a course of study, which should aim at the interests of the many, on account of the few who change residences? Shall we injure the five thousand who do not change for the doubtful good of the one who does? Moreover, at the best, it is impossible to bring all schools up to the same level, and therefore this argument is useless. If a programme must be employed, let it be laid out by topics.

Mr. Payson, of Chelsea — I understand that a programme is laid out for a general guide, and not as a binding law. It does not follow, because one teacher reviews the work of another, that the former does too much. A board planed over once is not finished. No committee would probably lay out as many pages where a review is required with the advance. Undoubtedly proper topics should be selected.

Mr. Sherwin, of the English High School, Boston — When Colburn's Arithmetic was first published, it contained some charts, which are now unwisely omitted. Had they been retained the objections to its use would be diminished.

A text-book is not necessarily to be followed. It often serves to save the labor of an indolent teacher. If a teacher is full of the subject, by using the blackboard, he can teach more in one hour than he otherwise could in ten. We are not in danger of aiding children too much, for they will find great difficulties, even with the best help. By beginning with that which is readily comprehended, and using visible demonstrations or illustrations we can gradually lead the child along, and by having him try to reproduce the work on the board, we shall fix permanently each principle. Again the teacher must be up to his work. The best teacher of arithmetic must have a culture higher than that of arithmetic. The subject is no better taught to-day, than it was by some instructors years ago. Examples done at home are not always the child's work, and in doling out so many questions, of which the answers are to be brought in, we relegate the child to the worst of teachers, and furnish a temptation to fraud. Six examples fully considered at school, are better than many, the answers to which alone are required. I would not have very complicated examples given. All principles can be taught with numbers less than one thousand better than with those which are larger. What is the use of such labor as adding long columns of figures for many days in succession? The design of school education is not to make boys accountants. A school must not have a specialty for its object. We do not train a boy for this or that pursuit, but the business of the school is to make men and women.

Time is wasted by giving out large numbers, and complicated questions. Let the school-master be in relation to the pupil. Let him communicate directly with the pupil, rather than through the medium of the book. The idea of number is one of the first in the child's mind, therefore numbers can be begun early. But it will not do to press the mind of any child with long computations, unless he takes to them. The child should learn principles, and a little clerical error in computation should not condemn a work if principles and processes are correct. Written characters of mathematics are of no value except to fix the attention, and renew the conception of the object. Figures are of use simply to record thought. The work is all head work, the characters are only land-marks; but too much mental work is injurious, for it makes the child as a blind man.

Mr. Sherwin also gave an anecdote of Dr. Bowditch, who said he could not give a rule for any mathematical process, but could always make a rule after performing the work.

In this connection he also proposed the question, whether a knowledge of logarithms might not prove valuable in making calculations in the lower mathematics.

Mr. Hagar, of Salem, said respecting a plan of study, there must be a division of labor in graded schools, and whatever may be urged of the disadvantage arising from such a division by narrowing the mind of a teacher, necessity requires it.

In district schools the question does not arise. The teacher must know quite definitely what he is to do. On what plan shall we lay out a course of study, by topics, or by pages?

I would say lay out by topics, but I see no objection to designating the pages, if the topics are well laid out in the text-book. I do not see how a school committee's programme is better than that presented in print by an experienced teacher. Let the subjects presented be taught properly. I approve of oral teaching largely, but not solely. It is a great point for a child to learn how to use a book. I believe in oral and text-book teaching together, and properly using both. How minute shall we make these programmes? Not excessively so, as to the how, but definite as to the what. Here are the subjects; teach them your own way. I have nothing to say in defence of any poor programme ever made, but I do not believe that the mind of the teacher is narrowed by a good one. The teacher who is nothing but a teacher is no teacher at all. If we are narrow in any sense we are not likely to broaden the minds of our pupils. Schools composed of different material must not be expected to accomplish the same amount of work. The best must be done that can be under the circumstances. We cannot obtain from poor material as good results as from good. Programmes are comparatively new things, and are to be handled fairly. When a teacher is able to show that a programme is in any respects unwise, the author will undoubtedly accept suggestions for its improvement.

Mr. Hill, of Lynn — Adams's Arithmetic introduces the analytical and synthetical methods, presenting mental and written exercises together. Mental arithmetic I have found need not impede progress in the written, and no one has

ever objected to my introducing my own ideas with or for those laid down in the books. I cannot see any objection to using a text-book by pages, for so much of the book ought to embrace so many topics.

Mr. Snow, of Wakefield, had seen some scholars who were excessively trained in mental arithmetic. The perceptive faculties are the earliest exercised. Reasons must be given from the first, but only collaterally at first, afterward the complete logical processes should be taken up. It is pleasing to hear oral methods commended, for we want the personality of the teacher to impress the pupils. We want also the book to stay his steps. The trouble is that many teachers do not teach the subject, but only hear the lesson. These ideas would, in practice, produce a mathematical reformation.

Mr. Philbrick, of Boston, said that the chief point which he wished to hear discussed was what should the programme be. He would put mental and written arithmetic together to save time. He decidedly objected to the tremendous rigmarole of mental arithmetic which is sometimes heard, in which every point is minutely explained by the lowest classes, for this is the way not to accomplish the end desired. We must take the children as they are. We must arrange to have lessons for them to learn and to remember. The art is more important than the science. The child should know how to work, and know the best way of working, but need not be required to explain every principle. I find some places where arithmetic is taught admirably, where scholars are not crammed, but taught, and I believe the number of such is steadily increasing.

Mr. Twombly, of Charlestown, was refreshed with the sound views which had been presented. Regard must be had for the character of the children. Scholars go to the Grammar Schools for six years on an average. We dose them too largely with Colburn, by devoting two years to it alone. In preparing my programme I meant to do something for the mechanics and laboring classes. Many boys will have more use for mensuration than fractions, and sometimes a change in the order of topics is advisable, but text-books being prescribed, we must deal with pages, and the programme is designed to serve for a guide, and to present those subjects which might not otherwise be considered, as early in the course as advisable.

Mr. Collar, of Boston, suggested that a great deal too much time is devoted to arithmetic in our schools. One way to lessen this time would be to reduce the number of topics studied. There is a mistaken notion of what constitutes thoroughness. The popular idea is that it is *throughness;* and we act as if we thought everything in the book should be acquired. Is there not another view of thoroughness? No one is ever thorough in the sense of knowing everything. We ought to be satisfied with something less than all that is in the book. Indeed we might leave out many points and no culture be lost. Another mistake is, that we seem to have assumed that arithmetic is most peculiarly adapted to the training of the child's mind. More time is given to it than to any other branch. Is not this a great mistake? At least half of the work is as purely mechanical as intellectual work can be. I suppose less arithmetic is studied than formerly,

but still our courses of study are too limited. A broad range of knowledge is now important, and to enter it there is great want of less arithmetic. We need thin books.

NATHAN E. WILLIS,
*Recording Secretary.*

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## CORRESPONDENCE.

A correspondent is mistaken in regard to any action relating to the publication of Mr. Philbrick's remarks to the Primary School Teachers at the last State meeting. That action referred to a paper upon an entirely different subject read upon another occasion. We should be very glad to give the substance of those remarks to our readers, but unfortunately no notes were taken at the time. However, Mr. Philbrick never forgets anything, and is constantly adding to his store of good things. We hope he may be induced to give our readers the benefit of his ideas in regard to the management of elementary schools, and elementary teaching.

A "Primary Department" of the *Teacher* has been referred to. We would say that it has not been our intention to set off so many pages of the *Teacher* as a Primary Department. But it has been, and is still our intention to give elementary instruction far greater prominence than it has been accustomed to receive. We are constantly seeking articles in this direction. We have met with some success, — just enough to encourage us. But we are far from being satisfied.

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## INTELLIGENCE.

*Items for this department should be sent to G. B. Putnam, Franklin School, Boston.*

*Charles A. Chase*, son of C. C. Chase, of the High School, Lowell, has been appointed Principal of the Grammar School, Auburndale.

*Hon. Frederick A. Sawyer*, United States Senator from South Carolina, was formerly Sub-Master of the Brimmer School, Boston, and was a teacher in Charleston at the opening of the rebellion.

*Edward A. H. Allen*, of New Bedford, and a graduate of the Bridgewater Normal School has been offered the position of Inspector-General of Public Education in the Argentine Confederation, under the Presidency of the noble Sarmiento. The salary is $5,000, in gold.

*Rev. J. H. Twombly* has been re-elected Superintendent of the Charlestown schools.

*George C. Clarke, Esq.*, of the Class of '58, Amherst College, and formerly Professor of Latin in the Chicago University, has been for nearly ten years a member of the Chicago Board of Education, and a part of that time its President. On the 22d of January a new school-house costing $78,000 was dedicated, and as a testimonial of his valuable services, received his name.

*Henry A. Drake, Esq.* As a tribute of respect to the memory of this lamented member of the Board, the Boston School Committee at their last meeting named the new Primary School in South Boston the Drake School.

*West Newton.*—The new Grammar School-House on Washington street, West Newton, was recently dedicated. The school-house is built of wood, in the modern French style of architecture, is seventy feet in length by fifty feet in width, and is two stories in height, exclusive of the French roof story and basement. It has four convenient school-rooms, with the necessary ante-rooms, etc., and a large hall. It is handsomely furnished, and cost about $30,000. The dedicatory exercises consisted of singing by the pupils, prayer by Rev. Mr. Patrick, the delivering of the keys by Mr. George E. Allen. Chairman of the Building Committee, to Mr. Thomas Rice, Jr. one of the Selectmen of the town, who in turn presented them to Mr. H. F. Allen, a member of the School Committee, and brief remarks by several gentlemen and singing by the pupils.

*Charlestown.*—In the School Committee meeting, Mayor Norton in the chair, an order was passed relating to the regulations of the public schools. It provides that the school hours in the Grammar and Intermediate Schools shall be in the forenoon from 9 to 12, with a recess of twenty minutes, and in the afternoon from 2 to 4 o'clock, except during the months of June, July, and September, when the hours shall be from 3 to 5 o'clock, with no recess. The order also provides that no scholar shall be detained more than twenty minutes after the regular school hours for any purpose whatever.

The Finance Committee made a report for the year, which shows the whole amount of expenditures for the support of the public schools to be $92,575.

The Finance Committee reported in favor of increasing the salaries of teachers from $25 to $50, except the sub-masters, who are to have $200 added to their present salaries. Laid on the table.

The Music Committee also reported, recommending the purchase by the city of new and good pianos for the use of the schools. They ask for an appropriation of $2,500 for such purpose.

*Washington.*—The House Committee on Education has held two meetings at the rooms of the Department of Education, where they have heard Dr. Barnard's plans of operation, and his statements contradicting the charges made against his administration. The Committee are unanimous in the opinion that the explanations of the Commissioner are satisfactory, and as to the importance of having the Department of Education sustained instead of being swallowed up in the Interior Department.

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## NOTICES.

A Convention of American Philologists will be held in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., commencing on Tuesday, July 27th, 1869, and continuing in session for several days. The call to this Convention is issued pursuant to a resolution passed at a preliminary meeting held in the New York University, on Nov. 13th, 1868.

Measures will be taken to complete the organization of a permanent National Society for the Promotion of Philological Studies and Research in America. Papers upon different branches of Philology by distinguished American Linguists will be read and discussed. The time that may then remain to the Convention will be devoted to the discussion of the following, among other questions, relative to the position which the Study of Language should occupy in our educational system, to the best methods of Philological Instruction. and to the promotion of Philological Literature in America.

1. How much of the time in a Collegiate course of study should be given to the study of Language?
2. How much of this time should be devoted to the study of the Modern Languages?
3. Should the study of the French and German precede that of the Latin and Greek Languages?
4. What position should be given to the study of the English Language in our Colleges and other high schools of learning?
5. What is the most efficient method of instruction in the Classical Languages?
6. What is the best system of pronouncing Latin and Greek?
7. Should the written accent be observed, in pronouncing Classical Greek?
8. What more efficient measures can be taken to preserve from destruction the Languages of the Aboriginal Indians of America?

Professors of Language in Universities, Colleges, Theological Seminaries and other high schools of learning, Presidents of Colleges and other schools where Languages are taught, and amateurs and patrons of Philological studies and investigation are hereby invited to be present at this Convention.

It is important that all who design attending the Convention should be present at the first session, which will be held on Tuesday, July 27th, at 3 P. M.

All persons intending to be present at the Convention, and all who propose to prepare papers to be read, will please communicate notice thereof, not later than by July 1st, 1869, to the *Chairman of the Committee on Organization*, Prof. GEO. F. COMFORT, (Care of Harper & Bros.,) Franklin Square, New York.

To this notice are appended the names of a large number of college presidents, professors, and others interested in philological studies.

MIDDLESEX COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION. The next annual meeting of this association will be held at Arlington on the ninth and tenth of April.

THE NATIONAL NORMAL, an Educational Monthly. Edited and published by R. H. Holbrook; Cincinnati, Ohio. We extend a cordial welcome to this new educational periodical. The first three numbers have reached us. It is edited with ability and spirit; is decidedly progressive, and deserves to be well sustained.

## BOOK NOTICES.

SCHOOL AND FIELD BOOK OF BOTANY.—By Asa Gray, Fisher Professor of Natural History in Harvard University. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. From Wilde, Bowler & Co., No. 1 Cornhill, Boston.

Professor Gray did much to aid the study of botany in our schools when he wrote the work, *How Plants Grow*. That little book introduces the subject in a very attractive manner to the youthful mind, and is extensively used. His other works have become standard text-books in colleges and the higher class of schools, and are invaluable to the private student. But there has been no book precisely adapted, either in form or arrangement, to the wants of the advanced scholars in our public schools. We are especially glad, therefore, to welcome the book before us, which exactly does this. It consists of the author's *First Lesson in Botany* in a revised form, and *Field, Forest, and Garden Botany;* is of convenient size, simple in style, and admirable in plan. It may be profitably used in all localities, and even at all seasons; for garden and conservatory may take the place of field and forest. It will unquestionably come into general use, and increase the interest in this delightful branch of natural science.

SELECT ORATIONS OF MARCUS TULLIUS CICERO. With explanatory Notes, by George Stuart, A.M., Professor of the Latin Language in the Central High School of Philadephia. Philadelphia; Eldridge and Brother.

This adds another volume to the *Chase and Stuart's Classical Series*, and is in the same form and style as the volumes before noticed. The text is "substantially that of Kayser, 'ex optimis libris manuscriptis,' as exhibited in the joint labors of Baiter and Kayser in the Tauchnitz edition of the works of Cicero." Fourteen orations are given, and the editor displays critical skill and good judgment in the accompanying notes. References are made to the Latin Grammars in general use, even Allen's new one not being overlooked. We are not surprised to learn that the books of this series are winning a large share of popular favor, J. L. Hammett, 34 Brattle Street, is the agent for this locality.

L. W. MASON'S MUSIC CHARTS.— We believe that we are doing good service to the cause of education in calling the especial attention of teachers and school committees to the excellent series of musical charts prepared by Mr. L. W. Mason, the well known teacher of music in the schools of Boston. With the aid of these charts, any person who can sing at all can train children in the elements of singing. Indeed, we know one or two ladies who, though quite unable to sing the simplest tune, have, by means of the charts and a musical instrument, achieved remarkable success in elementary musical instruction. The charts present a carefully graded series of exercises, and thus save the teacher the cost of much time and labor usually spent in writing exercises upon the blackboard.

The charts are in successful use in Boston, Salem, Worcester, Cambridge, New Bedford, Manchester, Dorchester, West Roxbury, Arlington and other towns in Massachusetts. Out of this State, the charts are used in such cities as San Francisco, Louisville, Cincinnati, Chicago, etc.

We thoroughly believe in the scientific study of vocal music in our public schools, hence we favor the introduction of Mr. Mason's Charts as an efficient means to a good end.

LEAVES AND FLOWERS; OR, OBJECT LESSONS IN BOTANY, with a Flora. Prepared for beginners in Academies and Public Schools. By Alphonso Wood, A.M., author of the Class-book in Botany, etc. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Wood's Class-book in Botany has long been favorably known to teachers of botany, and has been extensively used as a text-book in public and private schools. The smaller book now before us is a handsome duodecimo volume of some three hundred pages, illustrated by nearly seven hundred appropriate cuts. The author adopts the following order of subjects: Leaves, with their various forms and appendages; flowers, fruits, seeds, classification of plants according to the natural system, and a flora. The style of the lessons is simple and clear. The lessons are in the first person, as if addressed by the teacher to the scholar and thus serve as good exercises in oral teaching. With the aid of this book an intelligent teacher can hardly fail of making botany a delightful study.

NATIONAL SCHOOL SERIES OF READERS. By Richard Green Parker and J., Madison Watson. Published by A. S. Barnes & Co, New York.

Among the numerous Series of School Readers now in use, the "National School Series" is worthy of very honorable mention. It consists of five books carefully graded to suit the wants of successive classes. The elementary books are in fact, as well as in name, elementary, and clearly show that the authors are thoroughly acquainted with the best methods of imparting to young children practical instruction in the important art of reading. The elocutionary parts of the several books are carefully and systematically developed, presenting a large variety of valuable exercises, which appropriately illustrate the fundamental principles on which good reading is based. The higher volumes of the Series are admirably adapted to the use of High Schools and the upper classes in Grammar Schools. We have not room to speak of each volume. The "Fifth Reader" is a handsome volume of six hundred pages. The Elocutionary Part, occupying about sixty pages, treats of Orthoepy, including Articulation, Syllabication and Accent; and Expression, including Emphasis, Slur, Inflections, Modulation, Monotone, Personation, and Pauses. The selections for reading are taken from one hundred and twenty-six eminent authors, chiefly American and English, a few choice pieces being taken from French, German, and Russian writers. The selections are varied in character, and are such as give opportunity for practice in every style of reading, from the simplest to the most dramatic. The biographical sketches of the authors, and the foot-notes, giving the pronunciation and definitions of important words, and the statement of historical facts, add much to the usefulness of the book. The entire series richly merits the attention of teachers and School Committees.

ONE THOUSAND MILES' WALK ACROSS SOUTH AMERICA. By Nathaniel H. Bishop; 12mo. pp. 310. $1.50. Lee & Shepard.

We wrote, a few weeks since, a brief notice of this deeply interesting volume.

but for some unknown reason it failed to appear in the *Teacher*. We have since re-read the book, and are glad of an opportunity to commend it to our readers. It is a thrilling narrrative of a journey made by the author, who at the age of seventeen, left his home in Medford, Mass., with a capital of forty-five dollars, and returned, after travelling more than twelve thousand miles, with fifty.

That he might become inured to hardship, he sailed from Boston, before the mast, for the La Plata. After a short stay in Buenos Ayres he turned his face toward the West. Prompted by an enthusiastic love for natural science as well as adventure, he courageously entered upon his perilous walk of nearly a thousand miles across the Pampas. Nothing escaped his notice, and his descriptions are so vivid that the reader seems to hear, see, enjoy, and suffer with the young adventurer. He arrived at the eastern base of the Andes too late to cross, and spent the winter as a miller, near the city of San Juan, the birth place of Don Domingo F. Sarmiento, in the service of a strange American, called Don Guillermo Buenaparte, a sketch of whose romantic life Mr. Bishop gives. With the opening spring he undertook, alone, the dangerous passage of the Andes, reached Valparaiso in safety, and sailed thence for Boston.

Upon first reading this book we were impressed with the modesty and apparent truthfulness of its author. We have since been favored with an introduction to Mr. Bishop, and after hours of conversation upon the scenes and incidents of the "Walk," we are convinced of the truth of our impressions, and are pleased to express our most hearty commendation of his work. We are informed that the first edition is exhausted and that a second has just issued from the press.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, AND HANDBOOK OF CHEMISTRY. 12mo. 200 pp. By W. J. Rolfe and J. A. Gillet. Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co., Boston.

To the HANDBOOK OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, noticed in the August number of the *Teacher*, is added "Electricity," thus obviating the necessity of an additional book. The success which has attended the introduction of "The Cambridge Course in Physics" during the past few months, furnishes the best testimonial which could be given of the adaptation of these text-books to the requirements of our High Schools. Eight editions of the Philosophy have been sold since September, and five of the Chemistry during the past two months. They are already used in Baltimore, New Orleans, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Detroit, Buffalo, Rochester, San Francisco, Worcester, Lowell, Bangor, Concord, Manchester, Boston, and a large number of the leading cities of the country.

HARTSHORNE'S ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.—By Henry Hartshorne, A.M., M.D., Professor in the University of Pennsylvania, Haverford College, etc., etc. 12mo., 312 pp. Henry C. Lea, Philadelphia. For sale at Cambell's, No. 18 Tremont Street, Boston.

This handbook was prepared for the use of medical students, and would be of service in the hands of teachers. It seems to us too technical for a text-book in public schools. It is very concise in statement, and is fully illustrated.

[Our thanks are due for several books, the notice of which we must defer until our next issue.]